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1 **APPLICATION OF NIR IMAGING TO THE STUDY OF EXPANDED SNACKS**
2 **CONTAINING AMARANTH, QUINOA AND KAÑIWA**

3

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21 **ABBREVIATIONS**

22 *IJ*: The complete image that was measured

23 *K*: Number of measured wavelengths

24 **M_i**: The image mask for sample *i*

25 *N*: Sample number

26 *N_i*: Number of pixels (excluding background) for sample *i*

27 NIR: Near infrared

28 *N_{tot}*: The number of pixels in all samples in total

29 **P**: Loadings from the PCA on the unfolded NIR images

30 PLS: Partial Least Squares regression model

31 **T**: Scores from the PCA on the unfolded NIR images

32 TDS: Temporal dominance of sensation

33 20/35/50A: Corn-based extruded samples containing 20, 35 or 50% amaranth of solids

34 20/35/50K: Corn-based extruded samples containing 20, 35 or 50% kañiwa of solids

35 20/35/50Q: Corn-based extruded samples containing 20, 35 or 50% quinoa of solids

36 50/80C: Extruded samples containing 50 and 80% corn of solids

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41 **ABSTRACT**

42 Amaranth (*Amarantus caudatus*), quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa*) and kañiwa (*Chenopodium*
43 *pallidicaule*) are Andean grains that are gaining interest as nutritious gluten-free alternatives to
44 conventional cereals. Near infrared (NIR) imaging was applied to extrudates containing 20, 35% and
45 50% amaranth, quinoa and kañiwa in order to study the spatial distribution of fibre and protein along
46 the cross-sectional area. The results were contrasted with existing physical measurements (e.g.,
47 sectional expansion, stiffness) and textural data obtained from sensory profiling and temporal studies
48 (i.e., temporal dominance of sensation, TDS). Score distribution in PCA plots was directly associated
49 to fibre (PC1) and protein (PC2) due to spectral wavelength specificity (fibre: 1028nm; protein: 1470
50 nm). Partial Least Squares regression model (PLS) showed that evenly distributed protein structures
51 are strongly linked to desirable TDS textural properties such as crispiness and crunchiness, while
52 protein clumps were linked to undesirable properties such as roughness. In contrast, fibre was found
53 to reduce roughness. PLS could not explain accurately changes in physical attributes, and sensory
54 data from profiling tests had to be omitted from computing due to lack of fit. This study shows that
55 NIR hyperspectra imaging could help elucidate the chemical background of physical and particularly
56 temporal dominant attributes.

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64 INTRODUCTION

65 Amaranth (*Amarantus caudatus*), quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa*) and kañiwa (*Chenopodium*
66 *pallidicaule*) are grains traditionally cultivated in the Andes of South America in areas around or
67 above 4000 m.a.s.l. Over the years, quinoa has also been successfully cultivated in USA, UK,
68 Denmark, The Netherlands, Finland and India (Janick et al., 1996; Jacobsen, 2003; Bhargava et al.,
69 2006). According to FAO (2011), quinoa along with amaranth are promising foods for the future
70 due to their outstanding nutritional characteristics (e.g. protein quality, high content of fibre).
71 Although kañiwa is a much lesser known grain, its nutritonal qualities are similar to those of quinoa
72 and amaranth, and the production of kañiwa-containing extruded snacks is on the rise (Ramos Diaz,
73 2015). Extrusion is a versatile technology that alters the physicochemical characteristics of grain
74 flours, containing starch and protein, through increasing pressure and temperature along the
75 extruder barrel (Ramos Diaz, 2015; Ramos Diaz et al., 2015b). The resulting snack is expected to
76 have an expanded, porous structure, and crispy texture upon mastication.

77 According to Bressani and Garcia Vela (1990), the two largest protein fractions in amaranth are
78 globular proteins (albumins and globulins) and glutelins, accounting for around 90%, while the
79 prolamine fraction is below 5%. In contrast, quinoa was found to have up to 27% prolamines, and
80 fractions of globular proteins and glutelins accounting for around 70% (Scarpati de Briceño, 1979;
81 Scarpati de Briceño and Briceño, 1980). In kañiwa, prolamine accounted for around one third of the
82 proteins (Scarpati de Briceño, 1979). Regarding starch, quinoa seems to contain more amylose than
83 amaranth (around 12 and 7%, respectively) (Stone and Lorenz, 1984; Lorenz 1990; Qian and Khun,
84 1999; Jane et al., 1994; Lindeboom, 2005; Kong et al., 2009). To the best of our knowledge, there is
85 no information on amylose/amylopectin ratio of kañiwa. Upon extrusion, low content of amylose is
86 associated to highly elastic doughs leading up to greater expansion (and potential shrinkage) of
87 extrudates at die point (Babin et al., 2007; Ramos Diaz 2015).

88 Various studies (Ilo and Lui, 1999; Ramos Diaz et al., 2013; Ramos Diaz, 2015) have observed that
89 increasing contents of protein or fibre, and the addition of water into the system decrease the
90 sectional expansion of extruded snacks. Conversely, low content of amylose has been associated to
91 highly elastic doughs upon extrusion, bringing about greater expansion and potential shrinkage of
92 extruded snacks at die point (Babin et al., 2007; Ramos Diaz 2015). Despite this, little is known
93 about the spatial distribution of food component (e.g. protein, starch) across the sectional area, and
94 the potential effect this may have on the physical and textural characteristics of the product. In that
95 regard, near infrared (NIR) hyperspectral imaging is an optical nondestructive method that allow us
96 to explore the distribution of food components. NIR is based on the molecular capacity to attenuate
97 light at a given wavelength (700–2500 nm) or, technically called, molar absorptivity. This is
98 associated to a degree of molecular excitation that is specific to particular chemical groups such as
99 hydroxyls and amines. The overtone bands or molecular overtones (specific to chemical groups) are
100 then observable in the NIR spectra.

101 Although this optical multispectral measurement is nondestructive, fast to conduct and ideal for
102 online monitoring, it is not as specific as chemical tests, and requires a great deal of data analysis
103 (e.g. pre-processing, modelling) prior to interpretation. However, it gives a good overview of the
104 sample measured with only one analysis. The amount of information largely surpass that of any of
105 the chemical tests, and can lead to new understanding of the system at hand. According to Alander
106 et al. (2013), the mathematical models created, very often, cannot be generalised, and need to be
107 adjusted to new conditions. Although this may be seen as a weakness, this is also a strength,
108 indicating that NIR is capable to detect even minor changes in the sample matrix. Furthermore, the
109 problem mentioned by Alander et al. (2013) also indicates another strength of spectroscopy coupled
110 with chemometrics; they inherit the first-order advantage (Booksh and Kowalski 1994), meaning
111 that it will indicate to the user when a change in the sample matrix for new samples has occurred.
112 This is not possible with the regular chemical tests as these are univariate by nature.

113 The aim of this study is to identify the spatial location of major food components in extrudates
114 containing amaranth, quinoa and kañiwa through the application of NIR hyperspectra imaging, and
115 study the effect of such food components on specific sensory attributes through the application of
116 chemometrics.

117

118 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

119 *Materials*

120 Commercial varieties of amaranth, quinoa and kañiwa were purchased from South America as seeds
121 (Aduki Ltd., Finland), and milled with a pin disc grinding device (100 UPZ-lb, Hosokawa Alpine,
122 Augsburg, Germany) at the Technical Research Centre of Finland (VTT). Pregelatinised corn flour
123 (Polenta flour, Risenta AB, Sweden) was obtained from a local store in Helsinki, Finland. The
124 calculated composition of flour blends is shown in **Table 1**. The median particle sizes of amaranth,
125 quinoa, kañiwa and corn flour were 285, 575, 240 and 747 µm, respectively. Particle size was
126 determined by laser light diffraction in a Beckman Coulter LS230 particle size analyser (Coulter
127 Corporation, Miami, USA). Samples were first dispersed in 95% ethanol using magnetic stirring,
128 and then incubated in an ultrasound bath (5 min) to prevent the formation of aggregates. The
129 volumetric distribution of the particles (in accordance with the Fraunhofer diffraction model and
130 geometric statistics) was used to calculate medians of the particle sizes.

131

132 *Extrusion*

133 Extrudates were prepared using a co-rotating twin-screw extruder (Thermo Prism PTW24, Thermo
134 Haake, Germany). The extruder consisted of seven sections with individual temperature control in
135 six of them (each 96 mm in length). The feed rate was maintained at 86 g/min (constant) and the
136 temperature profile was fixed at 90 °C (section 1), 95 °C (section 2), 95 °C (section 3), 100 °C
137 (section 4), 110 °C (section 5) and 140 °C (section 6). Further details on the extrusion conditions

138 can be found in Ramos Diaz et al. (2015). The samples used in the present study were obtained
139 under the following conditions: a. Content of amaranth, quinoa or kañiwa, 20, 35% and 50% (of
140 solids); b. Water content of mass, 14%; c. Screw speed, 500 rpm; d. Temperature of die, 140 °C.

141

142 *Physical and sensory evaluation*

143 Sectional expansion index (SEI) was the ratio between the cross-sectional area of an extrudate and
144 die. Stiffness was calculated as the slope of force-formation curve in a universal testing machine
145 (Instron 4465, Instron Ltd., High Wycombe, UK) under three-point bending conditions. Extrudates
146 were positioned perpendicularly over a sample holder (12-mm gap) and the speed of the aluminium
147 probe was 5 mm/min (Ramos-Diaz 2015). Water absorption index (WAI) and water solubility index
148 (WSI) was calculated following the method described by Mäkilä et al. (2014).

149 Regarding the sensory evaluation, panellists (n=10, aged 20-30 years) were trained in English for
150 up to 12 hours at the sensory laboratory of the Department of Food and Nutritional Sciences of the
151 University of Helsinki. *Sensory profiling*; training was performed to familiarize the panel with
152 extrudates and develop a set of descriptors, references and definitions. Panellists were first introduced
153 to various commercial extruded products in order to generate a preliminary list of attributes linked to
154 texture. Reference samples are described by Ramos-Diaz et al. (2015). Each panellist evaluated all 9
155 samples [three contents of flours (20, 35, 50%) × three grain types (amaranth, quinoa, kañiwa)] in
156 duplicate. The intensity of the descriptors on unstructured 10-cm line scales with the anchors: “not at
157 all” and “very”. The attributes for texture were: crispiness, crunchiness (not included in the present
158 study), hardness, hard particles and adhesiveness. *Temporal dominance of sensation (TDS)*; Panellists
159 discussed and generated a set of descriptors associated to dominant perceptions during mastication.
160 The list of potentially dominant descriptors was presented in this order (decided by consensus):
161 crispiness, hardness, crunchiness, roughness, stickiness and gooeyness. Panellists began the
162 evaluation by placing the sample in their mouth and then selecting the descriptor they perceived as

163 dominant. As the time went by, panellists evaluated changes in dominant descriptors upon mastication
164 (e.g. from crispiness to crunchiness). The order of change and the time of dominance was registered
165 and subsequently analyzed.

166 For either sensory profiling or TDS test, data management was carried out with FIZZ Sensory
167 Evaluation Software, Version 2.45 (Biosystemes, Courternon, France).

168

169 *NIR measurements*

170 Extrudates were dehydrated for three days at 52 °C in vacuum incubator prior to packaging in
171 modified atmosphere (N₂). These samples were eventually sliced in to pieces of 5 mm in height before
172 NIR measurement. The NIR-hyperspectral images were obtained with a spectrometer (Headwall
173 Photonics, Model 1002A-00371, Fitchburg, MA) working in a wavelength range of 1000-1700 nm
174 with a spectral resolution of 7 nm. In total, 142 wavelength bands were recorded for each pixel. The
175 measurement was conducted on nine replicates per extrudate sample. Thus, a total of 81 images were
176 recorded (9 replicates x 3 grain types x 3 contents), however, due to an error for one of the
177 measurements, one of the images (one image with 20Q) could not be retrieved from the camera,
178 reducing the total number of images to 80. The number of pixels for each image was on average 185
179 x 56.

180

181 *Data handling*

182 Each step in the data handling is shown in **Figure 1**.

- 183 i. The background for each of the images (**Figure 1A**) were removed by making a mask
184 indicating whether a pixel in the image contained the extrudate (1) or the background (0)
185 (**Figure 1B**).
- 186 ii. The mask was then applied to each image (**Figure 1C**).

- 187 iii. Subsequently each image was unfolded, creating a matrix of size $IJ \times 142$ columns (one row
188 per pixel and one column per NIR wavelength; **Figure 1D**).
- 189 iv. All samples were concatenated, giving rise to a matrix containing $N \times IJ$ rows and 142
190 columns (**Figure 1E**). N equals the total number of images, which were 80, and IJ indicates
191 the number of extrudate pixels for each image. However, due to a lighting problem for one of
192 the remaining images (one image with 20Q, probably related to the missing image mentioned
193 above), an outlier was spotted in a preliminary PCA, thus reducing the number of images
194 further to 79. The total number of spectra thus ended up being 520.062.
- 195 v. Each row of this matrix was pre-processed (**Figure 1F**) by first smoothing the spectra
196 according to the Savitzky-Golay algorithm (Savitzky-Golay, 1964) using a window size of
197 nine, 2nd order polynomial for fitting the data and exclusion of the end-points. This was
198 important in order to improve the signal-to-noise-ratio of the spectra. In order to reduce the
199 scattering effects, all data were subsequently pre-processed by Multiplicative Scatter
200 Correction (MSC; Geladi et al., 1985).
- 201 vi. For each image, the average spectrum was extracted, and a global PCA (**Figure 1G**) was
202 made on these 79 spectra by 134 wavelengths (the four first and four last wavelengths were
203 lost during the Savitzky-Golay pre-processing step). The pixels for all the images were
204 subsequently projected onto this PCA model. Please note that both the reference for the
205 MSC and the average spectrum used for the mean-centering were calculated based on the 79
206 average spectra.⁶ In order to visualize the PCA, the calculated scores were refolded back
207 into the shape of the original image (**Figure 1H**).

212 *Combining the NIR images and the sensory evaluation*

213 In order to compare the NIR image data and the sensory evaluations, a PLS analysis was conducted
214 with the average spectra of each sample type (quinoa, amaranth or kañiwa) and content (20, 35 and
215 50% of tested flour) (**Figure 1G'**), and regressed towards the physical and sensory evaluation (i.e.
216 TDS) of the same sample type and content (**Figure 1H'**). Thus, the analysis consisted of a total of
217 nine samples and 134 wavelengths in the **X**-matrix, and nine samples with 10 sensory attributes in
218 **Y**. The NIR data was mean-centered and the sensory evaluation was autoscaled prior to the PLS
219 model. No validation was performed, as the result only was interesting from an exploratory
220 approach.

221

222 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

223 *Overview PCA*

224 As a first step in the data analysis, a PCA was made on the 79 average spectra across each image.
225 Instead of showing the score-plot with the 79 samples, 9 ellipses based on the average and standard
226 error of each group (type and content of tested grains) are shown in **Figure 2**. The first component
227 explains 82.1% of the variance, while the second component explains 10.1%. It is evident that the
228 chemical composition of samples containing kañiwa is very different from those containing
229 amaranth and quinoa. Differences can be seen through PC1 (**Figure 2A**) and the loading plot
230 (dotted line in **Figure 2B**). This is primarily due to a large peak at the very beginning of the spectra
231 – with a probable maximum around 990 nm – caused by fibre. As shown in **Table 1**, kañiwa has a
232 markedly larger fibre content than the other grains. However, as both this peak, and the peak at
233 1373 nm can be assigned to fibre, it is believed that not only the content of fibre, but also the
234 composition of fibre in kañiwa is different from the other two grains. Fibre in kañiwa appears to be
235 richer in hydroxyl groups (-OH) compared to quinoa and amaranth (**Figure 2B**). The most
236 pronounced effect of the loading from PC2 (solid line in **Figure 2B**) are the two peaks around 1475

237 nm, indicating changes in the protein composition between the samples. In general, samples with
238 low content of kañiwa behave very similar to those with high content of amaranth and quinoa.

239

240 *NIR hyperspectral imaging of extrudates*

241 NIR images showed various score distribution patterns across extrudate samples (**Figure 3**). As
242 noticed from **Figure 2A**, the samples containing kañiwa have clearly higher scores on PC1 than
243 those containing amaranth and quinoa. Score-images with larger red sections seem to follow the
244 content of fibre (**Figure 3, PC1**); this is particularly noticeable in samples containing kañiwa.
245 Score-images of samples containing amaranth and quinoa showed remarkable similarities for PC1.
246 20A and 20Q are almost undistinguishable, but differences become more evident at higher levels of
247 grain incorporation (**Figure 3, PC1**). Samples containing quinoa presented slightly higher score
248 values than the corresponding amaranth (see also **Figure 2A**). In general, the distribution of the
249 scores for PC1 seems quite homogenous, with only minor changes within each image (**Figure 3**).
250 This is very different for the score-images of PC2, where samples show random peaks of score
251 distribution across individual images. Inevitably, the score positioning in **Figure 2A** is linked to the
252 score images in **Figure 3**. From this one can observe the similarity among 20K, 35A, 50A and 50Q
253 in terms of score distribution (i.e. large dark blue areas and few red ones). On the other hand, 20Q,
254 35Q, and 20A have similar average score values for PC2 (**Figure 2A**) but the score distribution was
255 found to be quite different (**Figure 3, PC2**). For instance, 20A showed a high degree of
256 heterogeneity with sharp and small red spots while 20Q and 35Q, though heterogenous, displayed
257 smooth and large red areas (neighbouring pixels have similar values). Various authors have found
258 that, in native amaranth and quinoa, starch and protein form strong links that require enzymatic
259 treatment or alkali conditions to break them apart (Radosavljevic et al., 1998; Choi et al., 2004;
260 Villarreal et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2013). Probably, this makes more feasible for starch and
261 protein to form intertwined matrices upon extrusion, like in extrudates containing amaranth (**Figure**

262 2). The resulting molecular arrangement may strongly depend on the type of starch (e.g.
263 amylose/amylopectin ratio) and protein (i.e. albumin, globulin, glutelin, prolamin) present in the
264 flour mixture.

265 According to Cabrera-Chavez et al. (2012), insoluble native starch granules may have the capacity
266 of entrap proteins during the gelatinization and retrogradation of amaranth starch. In the present
267 study, the extrusion temperatures (90-140 °C) were high enough to ensure a high degree of
268 gelatinization, dextrinization and eventual retrogradation. In **Figure 2B**, the spectra show overtones
269 at around 1470 nm (max) and 1533 nm (min), corresponding to the spectral features of starch
270 retrogradation (Osborne, 1996). Generally, polysaccharide hydroxyl groups are exposed during
271 extrusion contributing, most possibly, to the formation of links with other food polymers (Osborne,
272 1996). The cysteine residues present in glutelins (around 40% of total protein in amaranth; Bressani
273 and Garcia-Vela, 1990) could have increased the content of thiols (-SH) thereby boosting the
274 formation of protein-starch networks. Unfortunately, the overtone corresponding to thiols is
275 commonly shown at 1740 nm, beyond the boundaries of the wavelength range (1000-1700 nm) of
276 the present study. Cabrera-Chavez et al. (2012) explained that the starch-protein network might rely
277 on a combination of covalent (disulphide bonding) and non-covalent hydrophobic interaction.

278 Generally, quinoa and kañiwa have distinctively greater content of albumins and globulins than
279 amaranth (Ramos Diaz, 2015), reaching, in some cases, almost 80% of the protein content (Romero,
280 1981). In addition, the ratio of amylopectin/amylose in amaranth starch is commonly higher than in
281 quinoa starch (Qian and Kuhn, 1999). These differences could clearly affect the formation/stability
282 of a starch-protein network upon extrusion.

283

284 *Combining NIR images with physical and TDS data*

285 The PLS model (**Figure 4**) made by combining NIR images (independent variables) with physical
286 and TDS data (response variables) showed an extremely similar loading plot to the one in **Figure**

287 **2A.** The correlations between the loadings from PLS and PCA are higher than 0.95, indicating that
288 the same profile that applies to the description of the sensory attributes, applies to the chemical data.
289 The only difference is that the sucrose/ starch peak at 1441 nm is larger for the PLS model,
290 changing from a shoulder in the PCA to two peaks, with the protein peak at 1470 nm (results not
291 shown).

292 PLS modelling allow the introduction of a cause-effect relationship between score distribution
293 (**Figure 3**) and physical/TDS data (**Table 2**). As explained earlier, the score distribution in PC1 is
294 associated to the content of fibre and, in the PLS context, fibre presents an inverse effect on
295 roughness (**Figure 2; Figure 4**). Besides, 20K, 35A, 50A and 50Q presented very similar patterns
296 of score distribution, visually characterized for having small red dots (associated to protein) spread
297 across those samples (**Figure 3B**). These evenly-distributed protein-associated structures had a
298 direct effect on crunchiness and crispiness, with some minor effect on gooeyness, stiffness,
299 stickiness and SEI (**Figure 4**). In contrast, score distribution in 20A, 20Q and 35Q was visually
300 characterized for having large and well-defined red areas (associated to protein). The unevenness of
301 protein distribution as well as the formation of large protein clumps had a direct effect on roughness
302 and hardness, and minor effects on WSI and WAI (**Figure 4**).

303 Although sensory profiling was initially included in the modelling, it had to be omitted due to
304 technical challenges in the development of a reliable model. Apparently changes in the chemical
305 data arising from NIR spectral data can be successfully reflected on sensory continuum attributes
306 (e.g. TDS) rather than on mainstream sensory profiling. Details on the statistical analysis and level
307 of significance associated to sensory data is comprehensively described by Ramos-Diaz et al.
308 (2015).

309

310

311

312 *Effect of protein and fibre distribution on physical attributes*

313 The increase of amaranth, quinoa and kañiwa had a considerable effect on the physical attributes of
314 corn-based extrudates as seen in **Figure 4** and detailed in **Table 2**. Samples containing more fibre
315 and protein presented statistically lower SEI (20/35/50A, $p = 0.0001$; 20/35/50Q, $p = 0.005$;
316 20/35/50K, $p = 0.0001$), WAI (20/35/50A, $p = 0.0001$; 20/35/50Q, $p = 0.004$; 20/35/50K, $p =$
317 0.039) and WSI (20/35/50A, $p = 0.007$; 20/35/50Q, $p = 0.0001$; 20/35/50K, $p = 0.004$). It was
318 observed that the progressive increase of kañiwa led to the formation of protein clumps (**Figure 2**),
319 possibly linked to the disruption of porous structures and reduction of sectional expansion. The
320 incorporation of kañiwa reduced SEI by almost 50% (50K, **Table 2**). In contrast, the sectional
321 expansion of extrudates containing quinoa and amaranth (**Figure 4**) was not substantially reduced.
322 In this case, the formation of protein clumps took place at low grain incorporation (e.g. 20A, 35A,
323 20Q) and eventually dispersed (e.g. 50A, 50Q).

324 The increase of amaranth, quinoa and kañiwa reduced the extrudates capacity to absorb and
325 solubilize in water, probably, attributed to the formation of protein clumps. However, the effect was
326 not the same for all grain types (**Figure 4**). Extrudates containing kañiwa were able to absorb more
327 water (highest WAI), and were less likely to solubilize in water (lowest WSI) compared to those
328 containing quinoa and amaranth. This might indicate presence of hydrophilic polymeric structures,
329 possibly involving starch/fibre (**Figure 2**; **Figure 3A**). In contrast, extrudates containing amaranth
330 were the least able to absorb water (lowest WAI) and the most likely to solubilize (highest WSI).
331 Interestingly, protein clumps were not clearly observed in extrudates containing amaranth (**Figure**
332 **3B**). It is likely that the formation of protein aggregates and/or starch-protein complexes (clumps
333 observed as large red areas) stabilize the structure of the system, thereby allowing it to absorb water
334 and preventing further solubilisation. Due to the high standard deviation of stiffness, only minor
335 changes among tested samples were observed (**Table 2**). Extrudates containing more amaranth

336 became structurally weaker (20/35/50A, $p = 0.001$), which seems consistent with low WAI and high
337 WSI if compared with other tested samples (**Table 2**).

338

339 **CONCLUSIONS**

340 This study shows that the chemical profile obtained through NIR hyperspectral imaging can be
341 successfully linked to specific sensory and (to a lesser extent) physical attributes. Changes in
342 spectral data was accurately reflected in temporal dominance of sensations (TDS) rather than in
343 sensory profiling. Appealing TDS attributes such as crunchiness and crispiness were linked to
344 evenly distributed protein-associated structures while undesirable roughness was clearly linked to
345 the formation of protein clumps (e.g. protein aggregates, protein-starch complexes). In the present
346 study, increasing content of fibre was found to reduce the sensation of roughness. The versatility of
347 NIR to monitor food properties at industrial scale is well known, but its ability to predict textural
348 attributes is much lesser known. This study proves that fast-monitoring techniques could be used to
349 analyse the textural quality of extruded snacks.

350

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475 **TABLES**

476 **Table 1.** Content of protein and fibre in amaranth, quinoa, kañiwa and corn flours. The calculated
477 contents for flour blends were also included (Ramos-Diaz, 2015).

478

	Content (% of solids)	
	Protein	Fibre
Amaranth (A)	16.1	8.3
20A : 80C	9.8	6.3
50A : 50C	12.2	7.1
Quinoa (Q)	13.1	9.1
20Q : 80C	9.2	6.5
50Q : 50C	10.7	7.5
Kañiwa (K)	16.7	16.1
20K : 80C	9.9	7.9
50K : 50C	12.5	11
Corn (C)	8.2	5.8

479

480 **Table 2.** Physical/physicochemical and sensory characteristics of corn-based extruded snacks containing 20, 35 and 50% amaranth (A), quinoa (Q) and
 481 kañiwa (K). The data were obtained from Ramos-Diaz et al. (2015) and Ramos-Diaz (2015).

	Physical/Physicochemical properties*				Sensory profiling**				Temporal studies (cm ²)***					
	SEI	STF, N/mm	WAI, % d.b.	WSI, % d.b.	CRISP	HARD	HARD_P	ADHE	CRISP	CRUN	HARD	STICK	ROUGH	GOO
20A	11 ±1a	45.9 ±11.2a	387.1 ±8.3a	35.2 ±1.1a	9.0 ±0.1	5.6 ±0.3	5 ±0.4	7 ±0.3	14.4	27.0	12.6	41.3	28.8	24.1
35A	11.2 ±1a	28.1 ±9.4b	354.9 ±3.3b	34.1 ±0.3a	8.0 ±0.2	3.3 ±0.3	1.5 ±0.2	5.3 ±0.3	17.2	37.6	7.3	40.1	15.5	31.4
50A	8.7 ±0.5b	22.5 ±4.5b	322.3 ±5.8c	32.1 ±0.6b	7.7 ±0.2	3.5 ±0.5	1.3 ±0.3	6.5 ±0.3	21.3	44.0	7.3	43.3	7.7	43.5
20Q	9.9 ±0.9a	32.0 ±10.9a	400.4 ±2.0a	32.6 ±0.6a	8.3 ±0.1	5 ±0.6	7.7 ±0.2	6.6 ±0.4	16.5	23.8	17.5	34.7	38.4	19.0
35Q	11.0 ±0.7a	24.0 ±8.8a	408.1 ±1.5b	28.0 ±0.04b	8.4 ±0.2	4.0 ±0.4	5.4 ±0.3	5.9 ±0.3	19.8	29.6	9.4	36.4	32.6	24.9
50Q	9.8 ±0.8a	37.7 ±15.8a	399.2 ±2.5a	21.1 ±2.7c	7.9 ±0.2	2.6 ±0.3	1.9 ±0.3	4.8 ±0.3	20.2	51.3	6.5	34.9	11.8	26.1
20K	10.1 ±1.1a	52.3 ±21a	427.0 ±12.4a	26.6 ±1.4b	8.5 ±0.1	4.1 ±0.3	1.7 ±0.3	4.6 ±0.4	16.4	47.3	8.8	34.4	11.6	30.4
35K	8.2 ±1.1b	30.9 ±17.5a	413.4 ±4.5a	26.6 ±0.5a	7.4 ±0.2	5.5 ±0.3	1.6 ±0.3	4.8 ±0.4	15.3	34.7	22.7	33.9	6.6	34.3
50K	5.4 ±1.1c	34.6 ±10.6a	405.2 ±3.4b	23.2 ±0.2b	5.7 ±0.3	7.1 ±0.4	1.5 ±0.3	4.7 ±0.4	12.9	45.8	17.9	33.1	5.2	34.7

482 *SEI, sectional expansion index; STF, stiffness; WAI, water absorption index; WSI, water solubility index. *Different letters (a, b, c) within the same category
 483 indicate significant difference at p < 0.05.

484 **CRISP, crispiness; HARD, hardness; HARD_P, hard particles; ADHE, adhesiveness. Deviation expressed by standard error of the mean.

485 ***CRISP, crispiness; CRUN, crunchiness; HARD, hardness; STICK, stickiness; ROUGH, roughness; GOO, gooeyness. Combined average area of two trials.

486 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

487

488 **Figure 1.** A schematic overview of data handling. A. Raw image of an extruded sample, B. Masking of the
489 image to remove the background pixels, C. Application of the mask, D. Unfolding the image to create an
490 individual matrix, NIR wavelengths (columns) vs pixels (rows), E. All samples were concatenated to generate
491 a comprehensive matrix, F. Pre-processing of each pixel of the matrix (rows) and reducing the scattering
492 effects of the all the data, G. Principal component analysis (PCA), H. PCA scores refolded back into the shape
493 of the original image, G'. Average spectra for each sample type and content, H'. Regression towards physical
494 and sensory data (i.e. data from temporal dominance of sensation, TDS).

495

496 **Figure 2.** Scores (A) and loadings (B) of the first two PCs. These were obtained from PCA on the average
497 image spectrum. In the loading plot (B), the dotted line corresponds to the first PC, while the solid line
498 corresponds to the second PC.

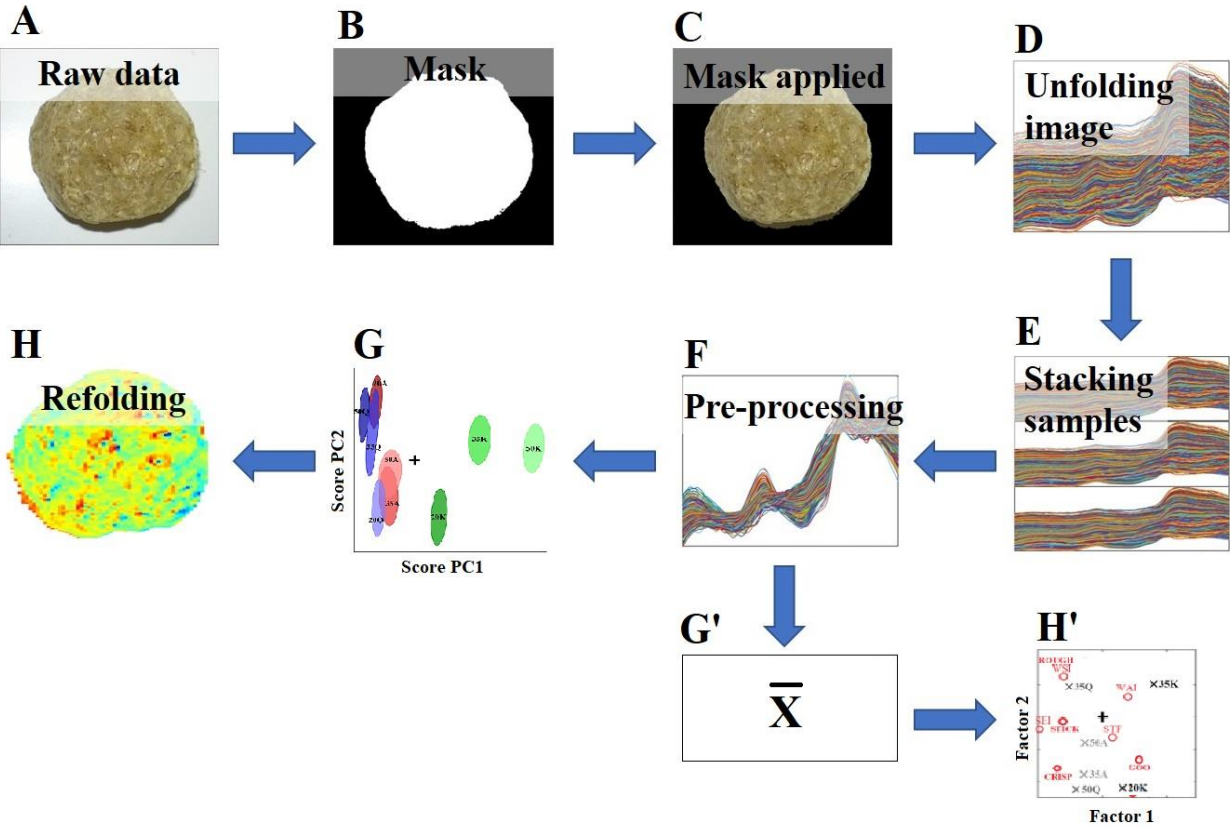
499

500 **Figure 3.** Score images corresponding to the first two PCs of one sample. Images were sorted following the
501 type and amount of tested grains. The image was selected as to show the average tendencies. The two bars
502 show the scale for the score-values used for the images.

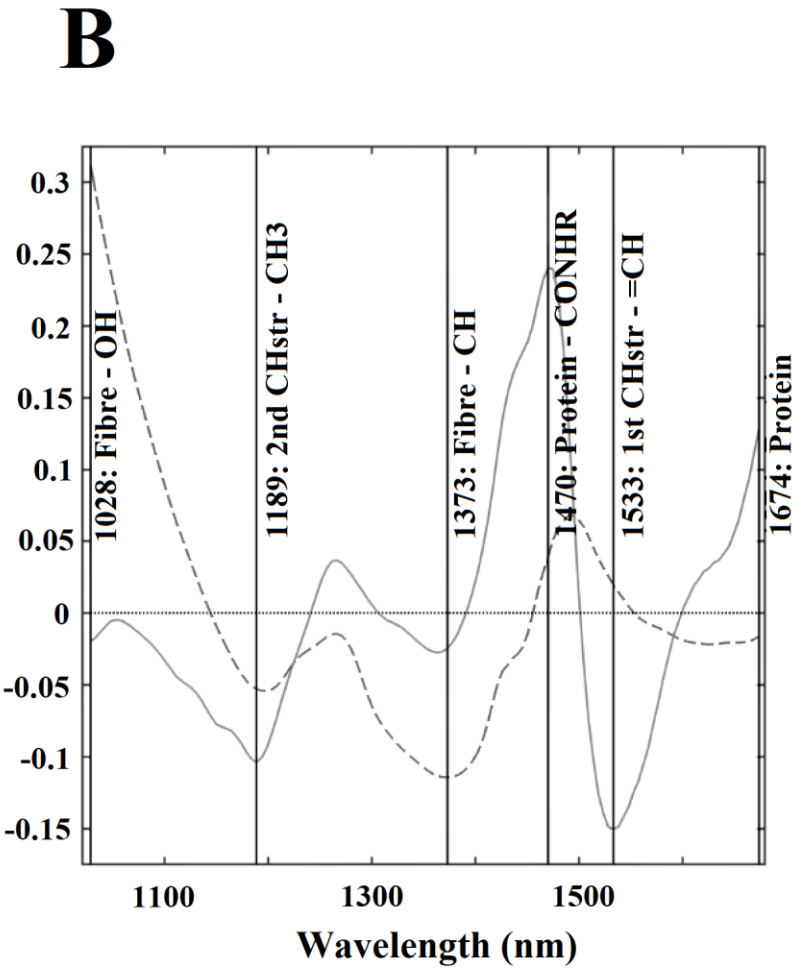
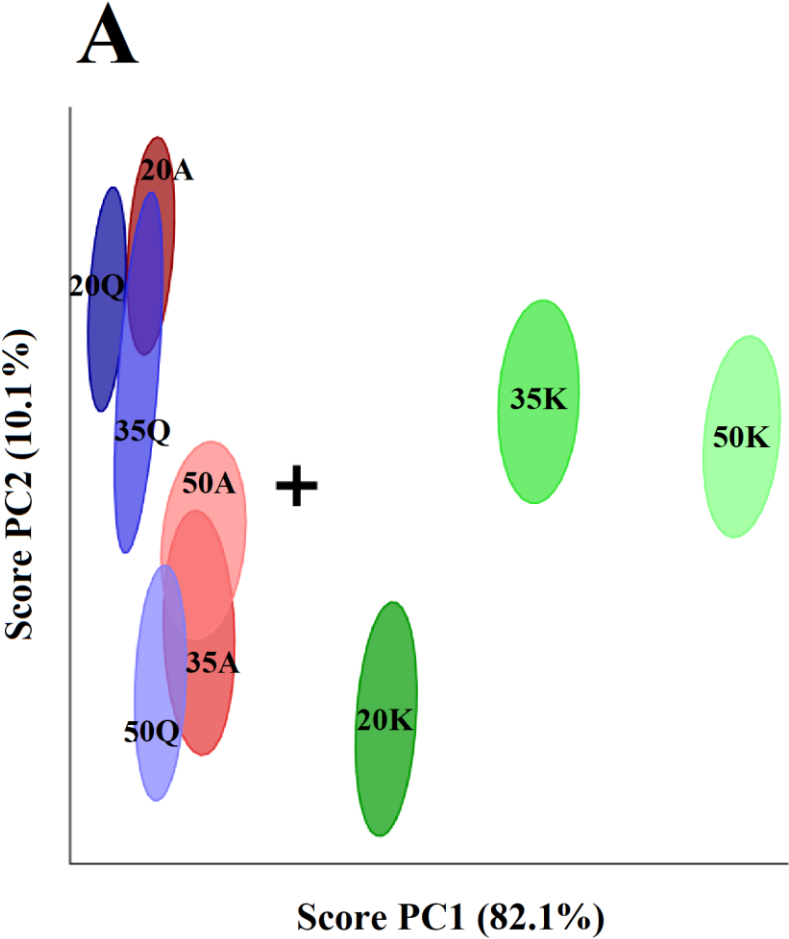
503

504 **Figure 4.** The bi-plot of the PLS model showing the samples (crosses; grey scale according to grain type) and
505 the physical/physicochemical (red circle) and TDS data (thick-lined red circles). Samples: 20/35/50A (corn-
506 based extruded samples containing 20, 35 or 50% amaranth of solids); 20/35/50Q (corn-based extruded
507 samples containing 20, 35 or 50% quinoa of solids); 20/35/50K (corn-based extruded samples containing 20,
508 35 or 50% kañiwa of solids). Physical/physicochemical characteristics: SEI (sectional expansion index); STF
509 (stiffness); WAI (water absorption index); WSI (water solubility index). TDS attributes: CRIP (crispiness);
510 HARD (hardness); HARD, (hardness); STICK (stickiness); ROUGH (roughness); GOO (gooeyness).

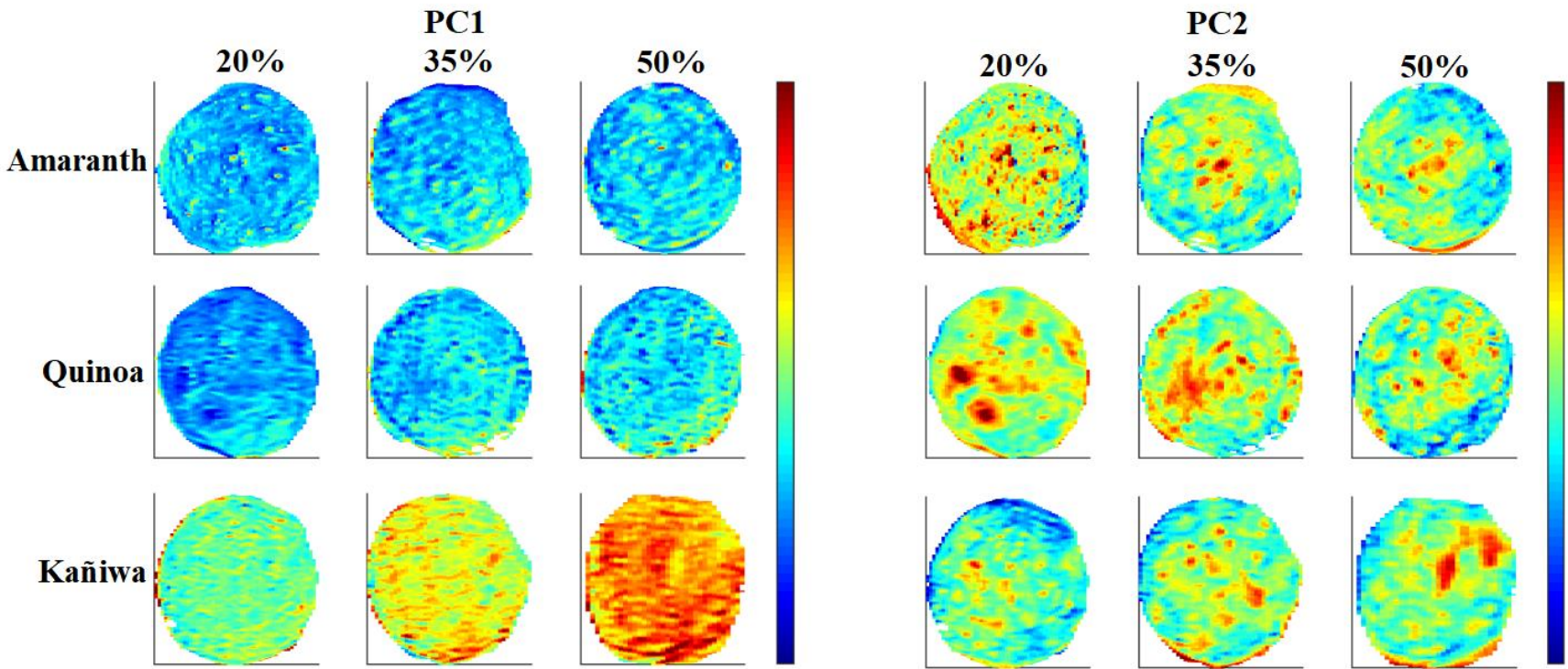
511 **Figure 1**



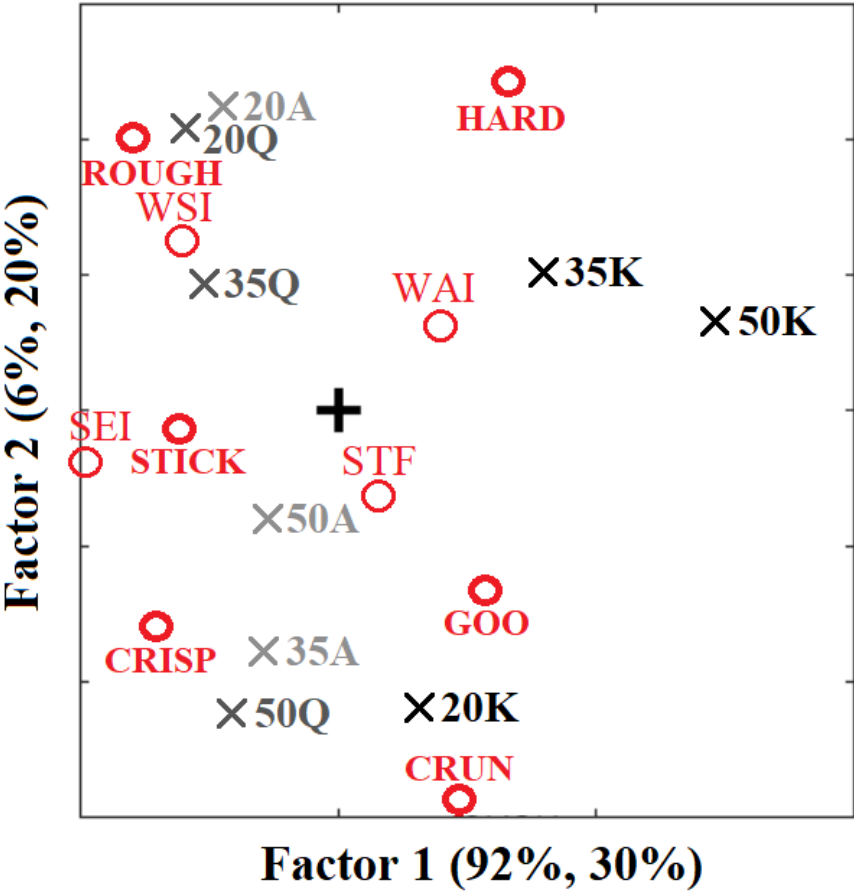
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521 **Figure 3**



530 **Figure 4**



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